A Review on Computational Approaches for Disease Diagnosis in Wireless Capsule Endoscopy Images

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Abstract: Wireless Capsule Endoscopy (WCE) is a commonly used technique for the examination of inflammatory bowl diseases and disorders in clinics. It is an effective and efficient non-invasive procedure for the visualization of the entire small intestine of a patient. It enables a physician to diagnose the abnormality of the digestive system at the earliest for prognosis. The manual examination of the WCE images, frame by frame is a tedious task for physicians. A physician requires two to three hours for the investigation of WCE images of one patient for the accurate diagnosis and staging of the diseases. Therefore, intelligent approaches are designed and implemented in the past couple of decades to provide support for endoscopists to analyze the images. In this paper, a survey on different image processing techniques and machine learning approaches used for the accurate and quick examination of WCE images has been presented. The issues behind the computational approaches for processing WCE images and videos are also analyzed with future directions.

Keywords: Gastrointestinal tract, esophagus, Computer Aided Diagnosis, Endoscopy.

I. INTRODUCTION

The longest portion of the intestinal tract is the small intestine which is a vital organ for the absorption of nutrients.

Abbreviations: Gastrointestinal Tract; CE, Wireless Capsule Endoscopy; AVM, Arteriovenous Malformations; CAD, Computer Aided Diagnosis; AI; Artificial Intelligence; FOV, Field of View; SVM, Support Vector Machine; TPF, True Positive Fraction; FPF, False Positive Fraction; CLAHE, Contrast Limited Adaptive Histogram Equalization; FCM, Fuzzy C-Means; RMSE, Root Mean Square Error;

LBP, Local Binary Pattern; IT, Insertion Time; WT, Withdrawal Time; CWT, Clear Withdrawal Time; COWT, Clear Operation-Free Withdrawal Time; RX, Reed-Xiaoli; OS, Oscillating Search; SFFS, Sequential Forward Floating Search; GA, Genetic Algorithm; IPQ, Portuguese Institute of Oncology; BEEMD, Bidimensional Ensemble Empirical Mode Decomposition; IMF, Intrinsic Mode Functions; CR, Compression Ratio; PSNR, Peak-Signal to Noise Ratio; SUSAN, Smallest Univalue Segment Assimilating Nucleus; SSIM, Structural Similarity Index Measurement; PDD, Photo Dynamic Diagnostics; SIFT, Scale Invariant Feature Transform; PLSA, Probabilistic Latent Semantic Analysis; SVM-SFFS, SVM with Sequential Forward Floating Selection; SVM-RFE, SVM with Recursive Feature Elimination; AGF, Autocorrelation Gabor Features; AHT, Autocorrelation Homogeneous Texture; HMA, Hierarchical Multi-affine Algorithm; MIS, Minimally Invasive Surgery; CR-ULBP, Color Rotation - Uniform rotation invariant Local Binary Pattern; DCT-LAC, Discrete Curvelet Transform with Differential Lacunarity; CH, Chromo endoscopy; NBI, Narrow-Band Imaging DSC, Dice Similarity Coefficient; ROI, Region of Interest; DCT, Discrete Cosine Transform; ASM, Angular Second Moment; CON, Contrast; COR, Correlation; ENT, Entropy; VAR, Variance; IDM, Inverse Difference Moment; SRE, Short Runs Emphasis; LRE, Long Runs Emphasis; GLN, Gray Level Non uniformity; RLN, Run Length Non uniformity; RPC, Run Percentage; RBCT, Ridgeness Based Circle Test; IDV, Intestinal Direction Vector; GND, Glottal Neighbourhood Descriptor; VHOG, Variant Histogram of Oriented Gradient; ORA, Overall Recognition Accuracy; SALLC, Saliency and Adaptive Locality Constrained Linear Coding; MSRCR, Multi-Scale Retinex with Colour Restoration;

Small bowl is a part of the intestine that lies between the stomach and the $colon^1$. It is a challenging task for the physicians to manually examine the causes for abnormality of gastrointestinal (GI) tract that originates in the small bowel. It is hard to reach with instruments either through the mouth or through the anus because it is located between the stomach and the large bowel². The small bowel is more than 17 feet long, so the X-ray technology is not suitable to pinpoint exact locations of abnormalities of small intestine³.

The abnormal blood vessels, known as AVMs (Arteriovenous Malformations) are located within the wall of the small bowel. They are the major causatives for the bleeding in the small bowel and they are invisible in standard X-rays. Various destructive illnesses such as Crohn's disease, obscure GI bleeding, Barrett's esophagus, sceliac disease, tumor, Cancer, ulcer infections, and diverticular occur due to the AVMs in different regions of the GI tract⁴.In earlier periods, to examine the GI tract, wired endoscopy was used. In wired endoscopy, long cable was entered into the GI tract to diagnose the diseases of small bowel. But patients feel pain and discomfort due to itssize. Also, wired endoscopy could not reach the significant part of the small intestine³.

To address the issues behind the wired endoscopy, the first Wireless Endoscopy Pillcam was manufactured by "Given Imaging" in 2000 to visually monitor the entire GI tract⁵. This swallobale pill incorporated a little camera, an imaging sensor, and a remote network feature that permits the transmission of pictures and recordings of the GI tract. The information can be received by the specialists at a remote location. This innovation is extremely powerful since it offers pain-free and accurate diagnosis of the GI tract effectively⁶.

Generally, WCE captures a minimum of three or more pictures of GI tract for every second. Normally, the whole procedure to examine GI tract will take around 8 hours until the batteries debilitate. Consequently, it will deliver more than 50,000 pictures for every patient. These images are compacted and transmitted to a portable medium such as data recorder attached to the patient's waist using radio frequency link. Then the WCE image data are downloaded into a PC workstation and endoscopists will physically examine at these images frame by frame to recognize regions with abnormal conditions and severity of the patient. To evaluate the WCE images of one patient by a endoscopist, two to three hours are generally required, which is a time-consuming and laborious process. Therefore, it is necessary to design and implement an intelligent CAD system to support endoscopists for diagnosis⁷

Digital image processing is the emerging field that analyze digital images through the use of computational model. The major goal of biomedical imaging techniques is to analyze the images for both diagnostic and therapeutic purposes. Medical image processing algorithms process ambiguous, missing, inconsistent, redundant and distorted image data only for some extent. The features extracted from the digital images are used to diagnose the disease. The images taken from X-ray, ultrasound, MRI, nuclear medicine and optical imaging technologies are enhanced using image processing technology to help the physicians for the identification and staging the diseases quickly and accurately. The various image processing techniques such as image pre-processing, image segmentation, edge detection, feature extraction, morphological image processing techniques are employed in the WCE images to predict the diseases. Similarly, image reconstruction and modelling techniques provide quick examination of 2D signals and they also help to create 3D images. The available image processing software is able to analyze the medical images automatically and identify the suspicious regions even when they are not apparent to the eye of an expert⁸.

In the medicine field, image processing technology visualizes the interior portions of the body to help the specialists for easy diagnosis. Similarly, it helps the specialists to make keyhole medical surgeries by reaching the inner parts of the body without harming the body too much⁹.

The Broad utilization of computerized imaging in medicine field requires sharp, clear and noise free medical images to diagnose the diseases accurately¹⁰. Even though the progression in the technologies produces digital medical images with higher resolution and quality, removing of noise in the digital images remains one of the major challenges task in the study of medical imaging¹¹

Computer Aided Diagnosis (CAD) is an interdisciplinary technology which combines multiple concepts such as artificial intelligence (AI), computer vision, and medical image processing. The main goal of CAD system is to identify the abnormal and pathology regions at an earlier stage for prognosis. CAD systems can be utilized to enhance the WCE images and also to diagnose the disease accurately¹². Machine learning techniques are employed in CAD systems for endoscopy image processing and analysis. Some of the AI techniques are also involved in medical image processing such as Decision Support Systems, Neural Networks, Expert Systems, Knowledge Based Systems, Fuzzy Logic and Systems, Neuro-Fuzzy Systems, Data Mining, Evolutionary and Genetic (or bioinspired) Algorithms, Semantic Nets etc⁸. Endoscopic images possess rich information¹, which is used for abnormality detection through machine learning techniques. The Chromatic or spatial domain techniques has been applied for detecting disease patterns. But applying these techniques individually may lead to inaccurate diagnosis. For example, identification of bleeding region and inflammation may possess different texture and color features¹³. As far as the GI tract diseases are concerned, it is essential to utilize soft computing techniques at the maximum for better and accurate analysis.

The rest of the paper is organized as follows: a systematic review of proposed computational approaches for efficient diagnoses of the WCE images has been conducted and presented in section II with the issues faced for diagnosing the disease using endoscopy images. The paper is concluded in Section III with possible further research direction.

II. COMPUTATIONAL APPROACHES FOR COMPUTER ASSISTED DIAGNOSIS OF GI TRACT DISEASES THROUGH WIRELESS CAPSULE ENDOSCOPY

The most common threat for human health is the diseases which affect Gastrointestinal tract (GI) such as cancer and bleeding in intestine. A research at Hong Kong hospital [2003] reported that 18% of Cancer deaths in Hong Kong in 2000 are GI related colon and stomach cancers¹⁴. It is necessary to detect the disease in GI tract at an early stage for prevention. Wireless Capsule Endoscopy is more suitable for the examination of the entire GI tract. Machine learning approaches have been used to identify and staging the severity of disease in WCE images. An elaborate review of computational approaches for diagnosis of diseases in WCE images are presented in table 1.

A. ISSUES RELATED TO DIAGNOSIS OF ENDOSCOPIC IMAGES

From the review of literature, the following issues are identified in processing and diagnosis of WCE using computational approaches.

The Issues Related to WCE Image Analysis

□ WCE produces approximately 55,000 images per examination. Due to the vast amount of images created during WCE, even experienced physicians need much longer time to identify the abnormalities in the images. Therefore, the inspection of the images by a physician is the most time consuming process.

□ The extraction of informative frames from original WCE videos is a difficult task since huge

amount of time is required for analyzing each and every frame for diagnosis.

□ A video recorded by WCE to examine GI tract contains more than 50,000 frames. Manual analysis of these frames is highly a tedious and times consuming task. Several researches generate abstractive and summarization approaches to reduce the reading time of the physician in long WCE video. However this approach selects a few sample frames from the entire video. Hence lose some informative frames related to disease diagnosis.

AUTHOR	YEAR	METHODOLOGY	Findings		PARAMETER		
Warren . Smith et al., ¹⁵	1992	Distortion Correction Algorithm	Distortion correction	Strai	Distortion Areas Mean $- 0.1898 \text{cm}^2$ Standard Deviation $- 0.0068 \text{ cm}^2$ No Distortion AreasStraight Line of Constant Area = 0.1963 cm^2 .		
K. Vijayan Asari et al., ¹⁶	1999	Least Squares Estimation-Based Approach	Distortion correction	Avg. Me Avg. M	Avg. Mean Error Before Distortion Correction – 1.35 Avg. Mean Error after Distortion Correction – 0.28		
					Reliable Path	Time	
Taosong He et	2001	Reliable Path	Finds reliable path for the complete	I Dataset	363 Voxels	109 Seconds	
ai.,	2001	Generation Algorithm	Examinations of human organ	II Dataset	1378 Voxels	23 Seconds	
				III Dataset	2741 Voxels	270 Seconds	
James P. Helferty et al., ¹⁸	2001	Distortion-Correction Technique (DCT) based on least square approach	Distortion Correction		Average Error – 0.0729 Standard Deviation Error – 0.003 Maximum Error – 0.261		
Baopu Li et al.,	2006	Tensor Based Diffusion Method	Contrast Enhancement of WCE images		Qualitatively measured		

Table 1. WCE Diagnosis Review Methods and Results

Baopu Li et al., 21	2007	Local Color Feature extraction using color histogram	Normal or Abnormal detection from gastrointestinal images		Sensitivit	y=65.2%, Spe	cificity=82.59	%.	
		A Forward and			I1 – Origina	ıl Image , I4 –	Proposed Me	ethod	
Baopu Li et al.,	2007	Backward Anisotropic Diffusion Method based	WCE Image Enhancement		I1	I2	I	3	I4
		on the contrast space		AUC	0.792	0.810	0.8	82	0.944
Yu Cao et al., ⁹	2007	Region growing algorithm based on texture features	Detection and diagnosis of therapeutic operations in Colonoscopy videos	Accuracy For Cable Images – 92% For Non-Cable Images – 93%					
S. Tsevas et al., 25	2008	Fuzzy C-Means (FCM) FCM, Non-negative Lagrangian Relaxation (NLR) and Symmetric Non-Negative Matrix Factorization (SymNMF)	Video frames reduction in WCE images	For a threshold	value equal to 1 to th	E-2 , the total le 10% of the	number of frainitial one.	ames was re	duced down
Luís A		Color and Position							
Alexandre et. al., $\frac{26}{26}$	2008	based method (RGB + XY)	Polyp detection			AUC – 94.8	37%		
						Informat	ive Frames	Bleedir	ng Frames
		SVM and Neural Network	Classification of	Feature	/ Method	Color Feature	Texture Feature	Color Feature	Texture Feature
Poh Chee Khun et al., ³⁰	2009		Informative and non informative	Accuracy	SVM	94.10	73.85	99.41	92.32
			frames	(%)	NN	93.44	70.41	98.97	80.30
				Time (See)	SVM	0.7125	6.7666	0.5100	2.1236
				Time (Sec)	NN	1.0329	2.3869	1.2163	1.3380
Jung Hwan Oh et al., ³¹	2009	Video segmentation based on camera motions and 5 Quality Metrics	Quality Metrics for measuring quality of Colonoscopy	Time Differe	Effecti A Effectiv ence between A Bounda	veness of SH0 Avg. Precision Avg. Recall – veness of PHA ctual Phase Bo ary (DPB) is 0	DT Detection - 0.809 0.873 SE Detection oundary (APB 0 Min:15 Sec	n B) and Detect	ted Phase
				Given Rota	ation Angle	Calcula	ted Rotation	Angle	Error
				5	5°		4.9327°		0.067°
		Contral	Consult F	10°			9.8207°		0.179°
Li Liu et al., ³²	2009	Orientation Approach	Localization	1	5°		14.5972°		0.403°
				20	0°		21.7749°		1.775°
				2:	5°		24.1724°		0.829°
				3	0°		-0.52784°		Big Error

Barbara Penna et. al., ³³	2009	Multi Stage blood detection Model	Bleeding patterns detection in WCE image		Fa Misse	Sensitiv Specifici alse Alarm R d Detection	ity - 9% ity - 88% ate (FAR)-8% Rate (MDR) -	6 - 3%	
				Features / Classifiers	DT	NB	6	KNN	SVM
Sousa, A et. al., $_{34}^{4}$ et. al.,	2009	Adapted Color features combined with Local Binary Patterns (LBP)	Gastric Regions classifications	Full HS + LBP(8,2)	88.1%	68.2	%	84.1%	88.6%
		• • • •		Body2_HS +LBP (8,2)	86.4%	77.3	%	85.8%	90.9%
					Classific	ation Accur	acy (RDA Cl	assifier)	
		Sequential Forward			SFFS		GA		os
Michael Hafner et al., ³⁵	2010	Oscillating Search (SFFS), and a Genetic	Classification of Endoscopic images	Two Classes Case	96.58 %		96.6%	90	5.9%
		Algorithm (GA)		Six Classes Case	93.68%		95.23%	80	5.8%
Yi Wang et al., 38	2010	Edge Profile-Based Appendiceal Orifice Image Detection Algorithm	Appendix/Nonappe ndix videos Classification	Overall Classification Accuracy - 91.30% Appendix Videos Accuracy - 93% Non Appendix Videos - 87.5%					
		Bidimensional Ensemble Empirical		Method / Ch	annel	Red Channel	Green Channel	Blue Channel	RGB Channel
Vasileios	2010	Mode Decomposition (BEEMD)	Classification of Ulcer and Normal WCE images		SVM	90.7	94.9	89.4	94.2
Charisis et al., ³⁹	2010	Classification SVM , Discriminate Analysis (DA)		Accuracy	DA	88.6	95.65	90.7	95.75
Fernando Vilariño et. al., 40	2010	Cascade System for the automatic Detection of Intestinal Contractions using WCE	Detection of Phasic intestinal contractions	Fa	Average (Vid alse Alarm Ra	eo1 to Video Specificity atio (FAR) –	o 10) Sensitivi 7 – 99.12% 48.71%Precis	ity – 70.08% sion – 60.26%	
T.H.Khan et al., 41	2011	YEF Colour Space	Compression of WCE images		A	Average PSN	R = 45.19 dB		
Alexandros Karargyris et al., 42	2011	SUSAN (Smallest Univalue Segment Assimilating Nucleus) Edge Detector and Log Gabor Filters	Polyp and Ulcer detection			Polyp D Sensitivi Specifici Ulcer d Sensitiv Specifici	etection ty-100% ty-67.5% etection ity-75% ty-73.3%		
						Fidelity	y Score		
Alexander		Fidelity Score for quantitative image	Image quality	Blending 7	Fechnique	(Cystoscopy	Pl	nantom
Behrens et. al., ⁴³	2011	based on Structural	assessment	Alpha-B	lending		0.6936	().3124
		Measurement (SSIM)		Pyramid	Blending		0.7125	(0.3120
				Non-Linea	r Blending		0.8469	().6982
Yao Shan et al., 44	2012	Scale Invariant Feature Transform (SIFT) and Probabilistic Latent Semantic Analysis (PLSA)	WCE video Segmentation of digestive tract	The computation time for the testing is 1.375s per frame while for the training 15.338s per frame for a typical codebook size of 600		e training is			
Rajesh Kumar et al. ⁴⁵	2012	Supervised Statistical Classification methods	Assessment of Crohn's Disease Lesions			Avg. A Norma Lesion	ccuracy 1 – 80.2 – 89.3		

Santi Segui et al.	2012	Two fold system for Categorization and Segmentation of Intestinal Content Frames	Segmentation of intestinal content in WCE images		Avg	g. Overlap Area – 8	3.29%	
	SVM with Sequential Forward Floating				Acc.	Se	n.	Spec.
Baopu Li et al., 47	2012	Selection (SVM-SFFS) and SVM with Recursive Feature Elimination (SVM-	recognition	SVM+SFFS	92.4	96	.2	88.6
		RFE)		SVM+RFE	87.2	91	.3	83.1
		Texton Autocorrelation	Classification of			Accuracy		
		Gabor Features (AGF)	images such as		CHI	mages	NBI In	iages
Farhan Riaz et. al., ⁴⁸	2012	Autocorrelation Homogeneous	normal, cancerous and precancerous	Texton-AGF	0	.82	0.8	5
		Descriptors (AHT)		AHT	0	.83	0.8	5
Gustaw A. Puerto Souza et al., ⁴⁹	2013	Hierarchical Multi- affine Algorithm (HMA)	Feature Matching	Sensitivity – 0.85 Avg. Time – 0.05S				
Vasileios S. Charisiset al., ⁵⁰	2013	Color Rotation - Uniform rotation invariant Local Binary Pattern (CR – ULBP) approach	Ulcer detection	Sensitivity – 70%, Accuracy – 75% Specificity – 80%				
Alexis Eid et al.,	2013	Discrete Curvelet Transform with Differential Lacunarity (DCT-LAC) detection scheme	Ulcer detection		A Av Av	vg. Accuracy – 81. /g. Sensitivity – 80 /g. Specificity – 81	89% .54% .89%	
Sonu Sainju et al., ⁵²	2013	Color Feature Extraction using first order histogram of RGB Plane	Bleeding detection	The highest cla	ssification accu	(m) 3,4,5,6	as achieved with t	he feature sizes
					CHI	mages	NBI In	iages
				Features	DSC	F- Measure	DSC	F-Measure
Farhan Riaz et.	2012	Normalized Cuts	Segmentation	LUV + TEX	0.6	0.58	0.71	0.69
al., ⁵³	2015	approach	Segmentation	LUV + CRE	0.58	0.56	0.64	0.62
				TEX + CRE	0.64	0.62	0.85	0.83
				LUV+TEX+ CRE	0.63	0.61	0.84	0.82
Alexander V. Mamonov et al., ⁵⁴	2014	Binary Classifier with Preselection algorithm	Polyps Classification			Specificity - 90.24 Sensitivity - 47.49	% %.	
Yanan Fu et al., 55	2014	Superpixel Segmentation with SVM	Bleeding Detection			Accuracy – 95% Time – 0.54 Sec		
Adam Brzeski ⁵⁹	2014	Color Descriptor for bleeding detection in Endoscopic images	Blood color detection	1	Fraction of ble Exact blood co Close l	eding images with olor descriptor for t blood color descrip	h features presen he test set - 92% tor - 97%	1

Hai Vu et al., ⁶⁰	2014	Automatic Segmentation method based on a statistical operator such as Local Mean Image with diffusion techniques.	Reddish lesions segmentation	The average probability of detection (v_d) - 92 The average probability of false alarm (v_{far}) - 10 The average probability of under segmentation (v_{un}) – 16		16	
0P.Shanmuga Sundaram et al., 61	2014	Grow Cut Algorithm	Segmentation of WCE images		Qualitatively	Measured	
Rosdiana Shahril et al., ⁶²	2014	Discrete Cosine Transform (DCT)	Image enhancement		Avg. PSNR Avg. Sharpno	. – 18.56 ess – 4.80	
Tomoyui Hiroyasu et al., [64]	2014	Texture Analysis Method such as Co- Occurrence Matrix And Run Length Matrix	Lesion Discrimination	7 out 8 I	Lesion zone were	e correctly identified.	
Santi Segui et al.	2014	Structured Output Support Vector Machine(SO-SVM)	Detection of wrinkle frames	Accuracy – 92.38 Precision – 91.85 Recall – 84.48 AUC – 96.07			
Bing xiong Lin et al., ⁶⁶	2015	Ridgeness based Circle test (RBCT) and Ridgeness-Based Branching Segment Detection (RBSD)	Vessel and Lumen detection Overall	Repeatability Score RBCT - 0.54 RBSD - 0.58			
Dan Wang et al., 74	2015	Intestinal Direction Vector (IDV) Acquisition Method	Lumen detection Precision	Pro	ecision – 955, Se Accuracy	ensitivity - 98.1 - 96.2	
					Mean Dice	Mean Area Error	Processing Time (Sec)
Oliver Gloger et al., ¹⁰	2015	Glottal Neighborhood Descriptor (GND)	Segmentation	Video Set I (Mild Pathologies)	0.89	0.07	1.81
				Video Set II (Severe Pathologies)	0.85	0.1	2.17
T. Ghosh et. al., 77	2015	YIQ (luminance-Y, chrominance-IQ: in phase-I and quadrature- Q) color Scheme	Ulcer Detection	Sensit	tivity – 93.50%, Accuracy –	Specificity – 94% 93.90%	
Seung-Hwan Bae et. al., ⁸¹	2015	Adaboosting and up/down data sampling.	Polyp detection		AUC - 5	0.49%	
Yixuan Yuan et. al., ⁸²	2015	Saliency Detection Method	Ulcer Detection	Sensitivity – 94.12%, Specificity – 91.18% Accuracy – 92.65%			
Yixuan Yuan et. al., ⁸⁶	2015	Word based color histogram	Bleeding frame Detection	Accuracy – 95.75%, Sensitivity – 92%, Specificity – 96.50% Time – 293.43 Se		e – 293.43 Sec	
Reeha et al., ⁹¹	2016	Undecimated Double Density Dual tree – Discrete Wavelet Transform (UDDDT- DWT)	Bleeding Detection	Accuracy – 99.5%, Sensitivity – 99% Specificity – 100%			
Shuai Wang et al., ⁹²	2016	Online Metric Learning			AUC – Time – 0.	0.93 17 Min	

Chun-Rong Huang et al., ⁹⁴	2016	A Hierarchical Heterogeneous Descriptor Fusion Support Vector Machine (HHDF-SVM) Framework	Diagnosis of Gastroesophageal Reflux Disease (GERD)		Accuracy –93.2%, TPF TNR–92.6%	2–94.9%
Xiao Wu et al.,	2016	The Piecewise Parallel Region Detection (PPRD) method and Uncurled Tubular Region	Hookworm detection from Pylorus		Accuracy – 78.2%, Sensitiv Specificity – 77.9	vity – 77.2% %
Ravi Shrestha et al., ⁹⁶	2016	Automated Adaptive Brightness (AB) algorithm with Sigmoid Function	To control the brightness level of LEDs to be used in wireless capsule endoscopy system S		Power Consumption Focus Value – 8.89 Total Current – 35.7 LED Current – 4.2	
Shang-Bo Zhou et al., ⁹⁷	2016	Support Vector Machine classifer	Bleeding Detection		Sensitivity – 98.53%,Specifi Accuracy – 96.36	city – 93.60% %
A. K. Kundu et al., ¹⁰⁰	2016	Image Histogram	Ulcer Detection		Sensitivity – 85.13%, Specifi Accuracy – 87.23	city – 90.42% %
				Image	PSNR	Sharpness
		Discrete Cosine		Patient A	16.18249	6.14052
Rosdiana Shahril et. al., ¹⁰³	2016	Transform with Anisotropic Contrast	Preprocessing	Patient B	17.45708	7.70441
,		Diffusion method		Patient C	17.98542	3.70399
				Patient D	22.57574	2.42673
Yixuan Yuan et. al., ¹⁰⁴	2016	Improved Bag of Feature (BoF) method	Polyp Detection		Sensitivity – 94.5 Specificity – 93.2 Accuracy – 93.20	4% 0% %
Corina Barbalaa et. al., ¹⁰⁵	2016	Anisotropic and Matched filters (MFs) based approach	Larygneal Tumour Detection	Sensitiv	vity – 70%, Specificity- 87%, Acc	euracy – 78%, Dice – 76%
Jorge Bernal et al. ¹⁰⁸	2017	Comparative Validation of Polyp Detection Methods	Polyp Detection			
Farhan Riaz et al., ¹⁰⁹	2017	IGabor Filter method	Cancer Detection and melanoma classification		$\begin{tabular}{lllllllllllllllllllllllllllllllllll$	<u>assifier</u> rea – 0.70 <u>ssifier</u> rea – 0.89 <u>assifier</u> rea – 0.91 <u>ssifier</u> rea – 0.71
Yixuan Yuan et al., ¹¹⁵	2017	Saliency and Adaptive Locality Constrained Linear Coding (SALLC) algorithm	Abnormality Detection in WCE images	ORA (Overall Recognition Accuracy) – 88.61 Processing Time - 1917.35 Sec		curacy) – 88.61 7.35 Sec
Meryem Souaidi et. al.,	2017	Local Binary Pattern (LBP) and Laplacian Pyramid Transform	Ulcer region Detection		Accuracy – 95.61 Sensitivity – 97.6 Specificity – 94.4 AUC – 0.95846	% 8% 0% 5

Antonios Perperidis et al.,	2017	Gaussian Mixture Model with Principal Component Analysis (PCA)	Detection of Uninformative Frames		Sensitivity – 93.0% Specificity – 92.6%		
Farah Deeba et. al., ¹²⁰	2017	Saliency-Aided Visual Enhancement (SAVE)	Lesion Detection	AUC - 94.91%. Sensitivity - 100% Specificity-65.45%			
Isabel N. Figueiredo et. al., ¹²¹	2017	The Image Registration Approach	bleeding identification in small bowel images		Qualitat	ively measured	
Vasileios S. Charisis et. al., 122	2017	Hybrid adaptive filtering (HAF) and differential lacunarity (DL) (HAF-DL) scheme	Crohn's disease lesion detection		Mean Ser	asitivity – 93.5%	
Tonmoy Ghosh et al., ¹²³	2018	CHOBS: Color Histogram of Block Statistics	Bleeding Detection		Accura	acy - 99.15%	
Atefe Rajaeefar et al., ¹²⁴	2018	Lossless Image Compression by Content-Based Classification of Image Blocks	Image Compression	Compression Ratio for Videos – 10.93 Compression Ratio for Push Endoscopy images – 2.50			- 2.50
Ahmed Mohammed et al., ¹²⁵	2018	Stochastic sampling Techniques	WCE Image Enhancement	Weighted-Level Framework (WLF) [33] – 1.48 Structural Similarity Index (SSIM) [34] – 0.92 Feature-Similarity (FSIM) Index [35] - 3.03 Information Content Weighted Structural Similarity Measure (IW-S		.48 92)3 ¢ (IW-SSIM) – 0.93	
				Method	Sens	Spec	Acc
Pedro N. Figueiredo et al	2018	A binary classifier and a threshold-based	Polyn Detection	Method1	83.7 %	66.6%	74.3%
128	2010	methods	Toryp Detection	Method 2	61.6%	61.3%	63.2%
				Method 3	Not implemented, si	nce no frames were avai	ilable without polyps
				Met	thod	DICE	AUC
				Quantiz	ed MLP	0.831	0.974
M. Hajabdollahi et al., ¹³⁰	2018	CNN and MLP	Informative frames detection	Full Preci	sion MLP	0.861	0.983
				Quantiz	ed CNN	0.846	0.978
				Pruned Qua	ntized CNN	0.869	0.985
				Full Preci	sion CNN	0.890	0.984
Isabel N. Figueiredo et al., ¹³³	2018	Multiscale Affine And Elastic Image Registration (MEIR)	wireless capsule endoscope localization		Mean Sca Mean Rotat	le Error - 0.0464 ion Error - 4.1111	
Mingzhu Long	2018	Adaptive Fraction Gamma Transformation with Color Restoration (AFGT-CR)	WCE Image Enhancement	IRMLE – 1.62 CEF – 1.35 LOE - 1.91 Time – 0.0315 Sec			
Meryem Souaidi et al., ¹³⁵	2018	Multi-Scale approach based on Completed Local Binary Patterns, And Laplacian Pyramid (MS-CLBP).	Ulcer Detection	Average Accuracy Dataset 1 - 95.11% Dataset 2 - 93.88%			
Ouiem Bchir et. Al., ¹³⁷	2018	The proposed approach depends on two main components such as a feature extraction and a supervised and unsupervised learning	Bleeding detection		Accur	acy – 0.9092	

		techniques						
V. Vani et al., ¹³⁸	2018	Fusion of Laplacian pyramid based Image fusion of Contrast Limited Adaptive Histogram Equalization (CLAHE) and Multi- Scale Retinex with Colour Restoration (MSRCR)	WCE Image Enhancement			SSIM – 0.99 PSNR – 25d) B	
Mohsen Hajabdollah et. Al., ¹⁴⁸	2018	quantized Multilayer Perceptron (MLP)	WCE Segmentation		Avg	. Dice Score –	0.8403	
Xiaohan Xing et. Al., ¹⁵¹	2018	Superpixel Color Histogram (SPCH) and subspace KNN classifier.	Bleeding Detection		Se Sp A	ensitivity - 0.98 pecificity – 0.99 accuracy - 0.99	351 % 953% 22%	
					ACC (%) TF	PR (%)	TNR (%)
Paulo Coelho et al., ¹⁵²	2018	Deep Learning with UNet Architecture	Red Lesions Detection	Dataset 1	95.88	9	99.56	93.93
				Dataset 2	96.83	9	99.09	90.68
				EExperiment	AUC	Accuracy	Sensitivity	Specificity
Michael D. Vasilakakis et. al., ¹⁵⁷	Michael D. Distances On Selective Michael D. Aggregation of Vasilakakis et. 2018 chromatic image al., ¹⁵⁷ Components (DINOSARC)		Feature Extraction	Local Descriptor	0.813	0.809	0.680	0.814
				Global Descriptor	0.815	0.818	0.512	0.908
Tonmoy Ghosh et. al., ¹⁶⁰	2018	Convolutional Neural Network (CNN)	Bleeding Zone Detection		Global Accuracy (%)	Mean Accuracy (%)	Mean Intersection over Union (IoU) (%)	n eighted IoU (%)
				Proposed	94.42	87.48	75.63	90.69
Nithin Varma Malathkar et. al., ¹⁶³	2018	Differential pulse code modulation and signed Golomb Rice code for encoding Y component and Golomb Rice code for encoding E and F components	Image Compression		Compre	ession Ratio (C	R) - 59.7%	
					Sen (%)	Sp	ec (%)	Acc(%)
Shanhui Fan et. al., ¹⁶⁴	2018	Deep Learning Framework	Ulcer and Erosion detection in WCE images	Ulcer Detection	96.80	9)4.79	95.16
			Ũ	Erosion Detection	93.67	9	95.98	95.34
Tomonori Aoki et. al., ¹⁶⁵	2018	Convolutional Neural Network (CNN) with the Single Shot MultiBox Detector	Ulcer and Erosion detection in WCE images		S	AUC – 0.95 Sensitivity – 88 Specificity – 90 Accuracy - 90	8 5.2% 9.9% 8%	
Amit Kumar Kundu et.al., ¹⁶⁶	2018	Interplane Intensity Variation Profile In Normalized RGB Color Space	Bleeding Frame detection in WCE video		Si Sj A	ensitivity – 95. pecificity – 98. Accuracy - 97.	20% 32% 86%	
Mingzhu Long et. al., ¹⁶⁸	2018	Adaptive Guide Image Based Enhancement (AGIE)	Image Enhancement	The average	e intensity of endos average loc	scopic images al entropy (MI	was improved by 64 LE) by 31.25%	.20% and the
Eva Tuba et. al.,	2018	Uniform Local Binary	Bleeding Detection		Dice simila	rity coefficient	t (DSC) – 0.85	

173		Pattern		Misclassification Error (ME) – 0.092
P. Sivakumar et. al., ¹⁷⁴	2018	Superpixel segmentation and Naive Bayes classifier.	bleeding region detection	Qualitatively measured
Xiao-dong JI et. al., ¹⁷⁵	2018	Back Propagation Neural Network (BPNN)	Classification	TPR – 97.43% TNR – 99.29% Accuracy – 99.09%
Romain Leenhardt et. al., ¹⁷⁸	2018	Convolutional Neural Network (CNN)	detection of GI angiectasia	Sensitivity – 100% Specificity – 96% Positive Predictive Value – 96% Negative Predictive Value -100%
P. Shanmuga Sundaram et al., 179	2019	ROI based color histogram and SVM	Colon Cancer Detection in WCE Images	Sensitivity – 96% Specificity – 85.7% Accuracy - 93.1%
Qian Wang et al., ¹⁸²	2019	Ring Shape Selective (RSS) filter	Reduction of bubble-like frames	Sensitivity RSS-based method - 92.7% Gabor-based method – 82%
Rahul Sharma et. al., ¹⁸³	2019	RANSAC Combined with Harris Algorithm for similar frames detection.	Reduction of Redundant Frames	The Frame reduction percentage in slow motion by the proposed method was 38.2%.
Nithin Varma Malathkar et al., ¹⁸⁷	2019	A hybrid DPCM and new signed Golomb code with less bits skip code to compress WCE images	Image Compression	Compression Ratio – 63.4%
Muhammad Sharif et al., ¹⁹³	2019	Fusion of deep Convolutional Neural Network (CNN) and geometric features	GI Diseases Detection and classification	Accuracy - 99.54% Sensitivity - 100% Precision - 99.51%.

Pre-processing Issues in WCE Images

Owe to non-uniform illumination conditions, the images appear darker. Visual quality in the image is also corrupted due to uneven contrast which leads to poor understanding of concerned features of the image.

There is no way to control the movement of WCE. So the pictures randomly taken by the micro-camera may be blurred or unfocused on required regions of tissues. The fast and frequent movement of the endoscope tip results in motion blur. Especially in the case of zoom-endoscopes a rather small movement of the camera may result in noticeable motion blur.Images formed with endoscopes suffer from a spatial distortion due to the wide-angle nature of the endoscope's objective lens. So it is necessary to implement distortion correction techniques for accurate diagnosis of diseases.

☐ The quality of the Endoscopy images is low, since the presence of undesired noise which may be caused by thermal noise produced by CCD or CMOS chips contained in modern endoscopes.

Feature Extraction or ROI Issues in processing of WCE images

☐ Most of the techniques available for extracting features from Endoscopic images are depend on the single domain such as Chromatic or Spatial domain. Finding disease pattern using spatial or Chromatic techniques provide partial and incomplete information which may lead to inaccurate diagnosis.

□ WCE images will be ambiguous with their black in color and visible boundaries. Hence, extracted features from the images may be mirroring of those apparent visible defilements of the image.

☐ The different lengths and irregular shapes of edges and diverse blending orientations make more difficult to extract features and patterns for disease diagnosis.

The issues related to classification of WCE Images

The physicians need a long time for examination to identify the normal and abnormal images. Usually, the actual number of abnormal images does not exceed 1%. While reading these pictures, clinicians have to spend two or more hours to select the abnormal and the suspect images from start to end even though most of the pictures are normal. Moreover, in order to reduce the rate of misdiagnosis, it is necessary to read repeatedly or read by other clinicians for verifying the respective diagnostic results. So, it is a time-consuming and tedious task. □ From WCE images, the number of pathology samples is usually small whereas the large numbers of samples are normal. Therefore, most of the approaches unable to deal the WCE images since the causes of data distribution are extremely imbalanced.

The majority of abnormal WCE images are not selected effectively or the normal images are selected as the abnormalities due to the deficiencies of the diagnostic algorithm. So the presently available CAD system produces less accuracy.

The issues related to Diagnosis of WCE Images

WCE localization plays an important role for the physicians or medical practitioners to determine the exact position of the lesion within the GI tract. Once the exact position is known, an appropriate treatment in the specified area can be performed. Localization of the capsule will also make medical procedures, such as local drug delivery and monitoring of tumors and cancers more effectively. So the efficient capsule localization techniques are necessary to address the troubles in determining the exact location of abnormalities inside the GI tract.

☐ It is very difficult to locate the exact location of the lesion due to the poor quality of images, □presence of extraneous matters, complex structure of GI, and diverse appearances in color and texture.

III. PERFORMANCE MEASURES

The performance metric is a significant and computable measure utilized for accessing the performance of image processing algorithms quantitatively. Researchers in the past decade have used various evaluation metrics to assess the performance of their proposed methods. Various metrics were used in the literature for the diagnosis of various diseases in WCE images. The short descriptions of these measures are given here under along with their formulae.

The performance metric is a significant and computable measure utilized for accessing the performance of image processing algorithms quantitatively. Researchers in the past decade have used various evaluation metrics to assess the performance of their proposed methods. Various metrics were used in the literature for the diagnosis of various diseases in WCE images. The short descriptions of these measures are given here under along with their formulae.

The Mean Square Error (MSE) and the Peak Signal to Noise Ratio (PSNR) were used to measure the performance of WCE image pre-processing techniques. The MSE measures the cumulative squared error between the original and the enhanced images whereas the PSNR is the ratio between the square of the maximum intensine value of the image and the mean squared error of image.

The Root-Mean-Square Error (RMSE) is a frequently used measure of the average of squared differences between enhanced and original images. It is also used to measure the performance of WCE classification and image restoration techniques. The SNR is used to measure the random and uniformly distributed noise in image pre-processing. It measures how the original images were affected by the noise. It is measured in decibels. SNR metric is used to assess image compression and pre-processing techniques of WCE images.

Mean Absolute Error (MAE) depicts the absolute differences between actual and forecast differences in WCE disease classification. MAE is applied to measure the computational efficiency of the image restoration algorithms.

Visual Information Fidelity (VIF) is one of the image quality assessments metric which measure the similarity between the original and enhanced image. VIF accesses the quality of the image enhancement algorithm and also measures the loss of human-perceivable information during the image distortion process.

The Structural Similarity Index (SSIM) is a measure of the similarity between the two different endoscopic images. It is used to compare luminance, contrast and structure of two different WCE images. Image Enhancement Factor (IEF) is the measure of the ratio between MSE of original and noisy image to the original and restored WCE image.

It is very important to detect edges in noisy images, since both the noise and the edges consist of high frequency information. Edge Detection Error Rate (P_e) is a measure of probability of error in edge detection algorithm.

Probabilistic Rand Index (PRI) is used to measure the segmentation performance of WCE images. It counts the fraction of pairs of pixels whose labeling are consistent between the computed segmentation and the ground truth. It measures the similarity between the two partitions of the segmented images. Boundary Displacement Error (BDE) measures the average displacement error of boundary pixels between two segmented images. The Global Consistency Error (GCE) measures the extent to which one segmentation can be viewed as a refinement of the other. The Variation of Information (VOI) metric defines the distance between two segmentations as the average conditional entropy of one segmentation values given the other, and thus it measures the amount of randomness in segmentation which cannot be explained by the other.

Accuracy is the ratio of number of correct predictions to the total number of input samples. Sensitivity and specificity are the two statistical measures of the performance for binary classification test in medical field. Sensitivity measures the percentage of actual positives values which are correctly identified whereas specificity measures the percentage of negative values which are correctly identified.

True Positive Rate (TPR) corresponds to the proportion of positive data points that are correctly considered as positive, with respect to all positive data points. False Positive Rate (FPR) corresponds to the proportion of negative data points that are mistakenly considered as positive, with respect to all negative data points.

Precision measures the number of correct positive results divided by the number of positive results predicted by the classifier. It measures the amount of retrieved instances are relevant to the classification. It is also known as Positive Predicted Value (PPV).

Recall is the number of correct positive results divided by the number of all relevant samples. It measures the probability of relevant information were retrieved successfully among all the relevant instances.

Area under the Curve (AUC) is used in image classification analysis in order to determine which of the used models predicts the classes best. The performance of a classifier model is then calculated by calculating the AUC on Receiver Operating Characteristics (ROC). The AUC score will be between 0 and 1. The higher the value of AUC, usually the better the model is.FAR is the number of false positives that are expected to occur in the given number segments, or in a given entire image.

Dice Similarity Coefficient (DSC) is used to measure the performance of automatic segmentation of the bleeding regions in WCE against a manual segmentation. Jaccard coefficient is used for similarity and diversity measure of two sets of WCE images. An image compression technique reduces the size of the images without degrading the quality of the images. Compression ratio (CR) measures the performances of the image compression techniques. The CR is defined as the ratio between the uncompressed size and compressed size.

Most of the classification problems handle imbalanced dataset. The balance between

majority and minority class performance are measured through Geometric Mean or Gmean. The formulas of above measures are exposed in Table 1.

	Table 2. Performance Measures						
S.No	Performance Measure	Formula					
1.	Mean Square Error (MSE)	MSE = $\frac{1}{MN} \sum_{y=1}^{M} \sum_{x=1}^{N} [I(x, y) - I'(x, y)]^2$ I(x,y) - Original image, I'(x,y) - Decompressed image M, N - Dimensions of the images					
2.	Peak Signal to Noise Ratio (PSNR)	$PSNR = 20 * \log_{10}(255/sqrt(MSE))$					
3.	Root Mean Square Error (RMSE)	$RMSE = \sqrt{MSE}$					
4.	Mean Absolute Error (MAE)	$MAE = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{j=1}^{n} y_j - \hat{y_j} $ N- Sample Size, y_j – Actual value, $\hat{y_j}$ – Predicted Value					
5.	Information Fidelity	$IF = 1 - \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{M} \sum_{j=1}^{N} (x(i,j) - y(i,j))^{2}}{\sum_{i=1}^{M} \sum_{j=1}^{N} (x(i,j))}$ where x(i, j) represents the original (reference) image and y(i, j) represents the distorted (modified) image.					
6.	Structure similarity index map (SSIM)	SSIM(X,Y) = $\frac{(2 \mu_x \mu_y + C_1) \times (2 \sigma_{xy} + C_2)}{(\mu_x^2 + \mu_y^2 + C_1) \times (\sigma_x^2 + \sigma_y^2 + C_2)}$, X, Y – Two WCE Images μ_x, μ_y - Mean value of the two images σ_x, σ_y - Standard Deviation of two images, C ₁ , C ₂ – Constant					
7.	Image Enhancement Factor (IEF)	$IEF = \frac{(\sum_{i} \sum_{j} (n_{ij} - r_{ij})^{2})}{(\sum_{i} \sum_{j} (x_{ij} - r_{ij})^{2})}, r_{ij} - Original Image, n_{ij} - Corrupted Image, x_{ij} - Restored Image, M x N - The size of the processed image$					
8.	Accuracy	(TP+TN) / (TP+FP+FN+TN)					
9.	Sensitivity	TP / (TP + FN)					
10.	Specificity	TN / (FP + TN)					
11.	AUC	AUC = $\frac{\sum Rank(+) - + \times (+ +1)/2}{ + + - }$ Where $\sum Rank(+)$ is the ranks of all positively classified samples + is the number of positive examples in the dataset - is the number of negative examples in the dataset					
12.	Precision	TP / (TP+FP)					
13.	Recall	TP / (TP+FN)					
14.	Geometric Mean	$GMean = \sqrt{(Sensitivity \times Specificity)}$					
15. *	FAR (False Alarm Rate)	FAR = FP / (TP+TN+FP+FN), TP – True Positive, FP – False Positive, TN – True Negative, FN – False Negative					
16.	MDR (Missed Detection Rate)	MDR = FN / (TP+TN+FP+FN)					
17.	FPR	FP / (FP + TN)					
18.	FNR	FN / (TP + FN)					
19.	Dice Similarity Coefficient	DSC = 2TP / (2TP + FP + FN)					
20.	Jaccard Index	$d = 1 - \frac{2 X \cap Y }{ X + y }$ where $ X $ and $ Y $ are the					
21.	Compression Ratio	Compression Ratio = Original Image Size / Compressed Image Size					

IV. CONCLUSION

WCE is a non-invasive technology that enables the physicians to observe the interior part of the small intestine. A major overhead associated with this technology is the large amount of time required to examine entire images and videos manually by physicians. This paper portrays several approaches used for analyzing the WCE images to extract the important features that are useful to classify the images as well as lead toward diagnostic decisions. This paper also discussed the issues related with pre-processing, feature extraction and classification of WCE images. Early diagnosis of inflammatory bowl diseases is a major prerequisite in order

to decrease the mortality rates. The CAD schemes aid the physicians for early disease diagnoses in GI tract, and hence improve the treatment therapies and thereby achieve higher degrees of positive outcomes within a short period of time. There is a need for automatic GI pathology identification, since the existing computational approaches does not provide a complete solution for all the problems related to the diagnosis of WCE images. This study can facilitate the researchers to contribute efficient CAD approaches for quick and accurate diagnosis of WCE images for the Physicians.

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